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increase would appear to have been greater in the first period observed, (1822-31,) than it has been in any equal period since.

Appended is a diagram, in which the annual increment of the home population is broadly compared with the annual emigration*.

In column A is shown the annual emigration, as registered, in each year from 1822 (to the end of June) 1849 inclusive; and in column B is given, in proportion, the assumed annual increment of the population at home, as deduced from the known increase in the decennial periods 1821-31 and 1831-41.

The Influence of Subdivision of the Soil on the Moral and Physical well-being of the People of England and Wales. By JOHN BARTON, Esq.

[Read before the Statistical Society of London, 16th April, 1849.]

THERE can scarcely be any subject of statistical inquiry more important and interesting than that of the influence of industrial occupations on the general character of the people. The extension of commerce and manufacture, the amelioration of the soil, the improvement of machinery, even the increase of national wealth and prosperity, rightly considered, are valuable only as means to an end; that end being the promotion of general happiness and virtue. We have at this day facilities for conducting this inquiry more directly and satisfactorily than existed in the days of the earlier political economists. At no period have there existed such treasures of authentic facts for this purpose as we now possess in the Population Returns, the Reports of the Registrar General, and the Tables of Mr. Porter. The rapid increase of crime since 1805, when the returns from the different Courts of Criminal Justice were first collected and published, has naturally attracted the attention of those engaged in statistical researches. But it is admitted, I think, and by none more than those who have laboured most diligently and successfully in the inquiry, that the causes of this painful and alarming change in our social position are not yet thoroughly understood. I propose in this communication to advert to one element of the question, which has not yet, so far as I know, been taken into consideration, though it appears to me well calculated to throw light on the subject. This is the greater or less subdivision of the soil.

* The numbers of registered emigrants from the United Kingdom, annually, as referred to in the text, were as under:—

1822	12,349	1831	83,160	1840	90,743
1823	8,860	1832	103,140	1841	118,592
1824	8,210	1833	62,527	1842	128,344
1825	14,891	1834	76,222	1843	57,212
1826	20,900	1835	44,478	1844	70,686
1827	28,003	1836	75,417	1845	93,501
1828	26,092	1837	72,034	1846	129,851
1829	31,198	1838	33,222	1847	258,270
1830	56,907	1839	62,207	1848	248,089

See the "Revenue Tables," 1820-33, p. 472, and the Eighth Report of the Emigration Commissioners, p. 40.

It will perhaps surprise some persons resident in this part of the kingdom to hear, that of the occupiers of land in Westmoreland and North Wales, more than one half employ no labourers at all; carrying on the business of cultivation entirely with their own hands or those of their children. How many of these are proprietors of the soil they cultivate I have no means of knowing. I am told this is the case with a large proportion of them, but I have not been able to meet with any authentic statement showing what this proportion is. Even those who are enumerated as "labourers" in Westmoreland and the other yeomanry counties are probably not in the same social position, generally speaking, as the labourers of the south-east. They are without doubt the sons of yeomen, too numerous to find employment on their father's land, and glad therefore to hire themselves out for a time to the neighbouring occupiers. If not actual capitalists, they expect to become capitalists on the death of their fathers or other relations, and this expectation imparts to them a character of respectability, and acts as a restraint on the commission of crime.

Every one must see the importance of making a distinction between these two classes of our agricultural population; and it will be found, I hope, when the comparison is made between the relative amount of crime in each county, keeping this distinction in view, as well as the distinction between the agricultural and manufacturing population, that many of the difficulties and perplexities which have hitherto embarrassed the subject disappear, and a rational explanation is afforded of some part of the extraordinary variation in the proportion of crime in different districts. I have divided the counties of England and Wales into five classes:—the first class containing those counties where the average number of labourers to each occupier of land amounts to two or less,—the second class where each occupier employs between two and three labourers,—the third class where each occupier employs from three to five labourers,—the fourth class where each occupier employs from five to seven labourers,—and the fifth class where each occupier employs more than seven labourers on an average. These numbers are taken from the Population Returns of 1831; I have employed these rather than the Returns for 1841, as in-door labourers in husbandry are confounded in the latter with domestic servants. Distributing the counties in this order, I then proceed to estimate the prevalence of crime in each by comparing the average number of commitments in five years with the amount of the population. It will be seen that in every case the number of commitments rises regularly and progressively with the size of the farms. I speak at present of the agricultural counties, which I have placed in a separate column. In the first class the number of commitments in each 100,000 of population amounts to 37, in the second class to 104, in the third class to 117, in the fourth class to 142, in the fifth class to 184.

There is surely nothing extraordinary or paradoxical in this result. On the contrary it appears to me just what might have been anticipated. That the possession of property, whether to a large or small amount, restrains a man from breaking the laws of his country, is a fact which must be familiar to every one's observation. A very small proportion, certainly, of those unfortunate persons who stand at the

bar of our Criminal Courts have anything to lose. It may serve further to illustrate this subject if I refer to the condition of the people in other countries, where the soil is chiefly divided among a multitude of little proprietors—Switzerland for instance.

“Whoever,” says M. de Sismondi, “wishes to judge of the happiness of a community of peasant proprietors must study Switzerland. There he will see how a very dense population may be maintained in great comfort, cultivating the soil with their own hands. He will learn how independence of character results from independence of circumstances. Whether he traverses the smiling Emmethal, or the remote valleys of the canton of Berne, he will see with admiration, not unmingled with emotion, the houses even of the poorest peasants; so roomy, so well closed against the weather, so well built, so ornamented with carvings. Within he will find everything beautifully clean, furniture nicely kept, chests of drawers filled with linen, a large dairy well aired, and exquisitely neat. Under the same roof he will find ample provision of corn, of salted meat, of cheese, and of fuel. In the stables he will see the finest cattle of Europe, and the most carefully tended. The garden is planted with flowers. Both sexes are warmly and neatly clad. All exhibit in their countenances that impress of vigour and health, that beauty of features which becomes the distinguishing character of a race who from one generation to another have been exempted from the debasing influence of vice and misery. Let other countries boast of their wealth; Switzerland may well be proud of its peasantry*.”

It appears that England was once inhabited by a race of peasant proprietors like those now seen in Switzerland. Of this fact we have evidence of various kinds; in the language of contemporary writers, and the language of ancient statutes. There is a remarkable passage in a work of Sir John Fortescue, “*De Laudibus Legum Angliæ*,” in which he contrasts the condition of the French and English peasantry. “The French,” says he, “wear no woollen cloth except it be very coarse; the women go barefoot, saving on holydays. Neither men nor women eat any flesh, but only lard of bacon, with a small quantity whereof they fatten their pottage and broths. As for roasted or sodden meat of flesh they taste none, except it be of the inwards sometimes and heads of beasts that be killed for gentlemen and merchants. Whereas the English,” he continues, “are rich, having abundance of gold and silver, and other things necessary for the maintenance of man’s life. They drink no water, except it be so that some for devotion and upon a zeal of penance do abstain from other drink; they eat plentifully of all kinds of flesh and fish. They wear fine woollen cloth in all their apparel; they have also abundants of bed-coverings in their houses, and of all other woollen stuff. They have great store of all hustlements and implements of household. They are plentifully furnished with all implements of husbandry, and all other things that are requisite to the accomplishment of a quiet and wealthy life according to their estates and degrees.”

Such is the description given of the manner of life of the English

* *Etudes sur l’Economie Politique*, vol. i., pp. 171.

peasantry in the reign of Henry VI. It is so much at variance with common apprehension that it may be satisfactory to adduce other evidence, confirmatory of Sir John Fortescue's statement. Such evidence we have abundantly in the "Statute Book." We there find a series of Acts, extending from the reign of Edward III. to that of Henry VII., for regulating the wages of labour, and limiting the expenses of the labourer in dress and other particulars. These Acts are not, like the Acts relating to the poor in more recent times, intended to remedy the evils of poverty, but to restrain the excess of luxury. And when we examine their provisions in detail we find that they indicate a state of things just such as Sir John Fortescue has described. It would also appear that the common or day labourers (though we must not understand the above description as applying to them) were better paid than in our times. On comparing the prices of unskilled labour in those statutes with the prices of corn and other commodities consumed by the labourer, we find his condition much better than at the present day. Instead of entering into the detail of this calculation, however, it may be sufficient to state the result in the words of Mr. Hallam.

"There is one very unpleasing remark which every one who attends to the subject of prices will be induced to make, that the labouring classes, especially those engaged in agriculture, were better provided with the means of subsistence in the reign of Edward III. or of Henry VI. than they are at present. In the fourteenth century, Sir John Cullum observes, a harvest man had fourpence a-day, which enabled him in a week to buy a sack of wheat; but to buy a sack of wheat a man must now work ten or twelve days. So under Henry VI. if meat was at a farthing and half the pound, which I suppose was about the truth, a labourer earning threepence per day or eighteen-pence in the week, could buy a bushel of wheat at six shillings the quarter, and 24lbs. of meat for his family. After every allowance I should find it difficult to resist the conclusion, that however the labourer has derived benefit from the cheapness of manufactured commodities, and from many inventions of common utility, he is much inferior in ability to support a family to his ancestors three or four centuries ago*."

It would seem that this happy state of things was a consequence of the conversion of the tenants in villainage into copyholders. Of the origin and causes of that change I have never been able to find any distinct account. It is by no means easy to understand the motives which induced the feudal lords to surrender so large a portion of power, and, it would seem, of income too, as is implied in the emancipation of their serfs. But that such a change actually took place is well known. It is thus described by Blackstone. "The good nature and benevolence of many lords of manors having, time out of mind, permitted their villains and their children to enjoy their possessions without interruption in a regular course of descent, the common law, of which custom is the life, now gave them a title to prescribe against their lords, and on performance of the same services to hold their lands in spite of any determination of the lord's will.

* State of Europe during the Middle Ages, vol. iii., pp. 453—455.

For though in general they are still said to hold their estates at the will of the lord, yet it is such a will as is agreeable to the custom of the manor, which customs are preserved and evidenced by the rolls of the several Courts Baron in which they are entered or kept on foot by the constant immemorial usage of the several manors in which the lands lie*."

Mr. Macaulay tells us that in the time of our Kings of the House of Stuart, "The yeomanry or petty proprietors who cultivated their own fields, and enjoyed a modest competence, without affecting to have scutcheons and crests, or aspiring to sit on the bench of justice, then formed a much more important part of the nation than at present. If we may trust the best statistical writers of that age, not less than 160,000 proprietors, who with their families must have made up more than a seventh of the whole population, derived their subsistence from little freehold estates†. It was computed that the number of persons who occupied their own land was greater than the number of those who farmed the land of others‡."

To the passage I have quoted, describing the happy condition of the peasant proprietors of Switzerland, might be added others of the same character relating to the same class of persons in Norway, in parts of Germany, in Belgium, and other districts of the continent of Europe. But fearing to occupy too much of your time, I must content myself with referring to Mr. John Mill's lately published "*Principles of Political Economy*," to the works of Mr. Laing, of Mr. Alison, and M. de Sismondi, in all of which there are to be found much interesting information on this matter. I will add, however, one fact which I have gained from the Reports of the Registrar-General, respecting the people of Norway, a fact which I have not seen noticed by any writer. It is this, that the proportion both of deaths and of marriages to the population appears to be less than in any other part of Europe as to which we have information; a circumstance the more remarkable considering the harsh climate and sterile soil of that far north and mountainous country. Comparing the population of Norway with the average deaths of the preceding five years, it appears that the rate of mortality is only 1 in 51, whereas the Registrar-General tells us in the same report the rate of mortality in England is 1 in 45, in France 1 in 42, in Prussia 1 in 38, in Austria 1 in 33, in Russia 1 in 28. As the small proportion of deaths marks the superior comfort and morality of the Norwegian population, the small proportion of marriages proves their superior prudence, or what Malthus called moral restraint. That gentleman, in his "*Essay on the Principle of Population*," mentions that the proportion of yearly marriages to the population in Norway was, at the time he wrote, which was nearly half a century ago, as 1 to 130, which, he adds, is a smaller proportion of marriages than appears in the registers of any other country except Switzerland§. Now Switzerland and Norway are, beyond any other countries in Europe, remarkable as being the residence of peasant proprietors. And surely

* Commentaries, vol. ii., p. 95.

† Freehold and copyhold probably.

‡ History of England, vol. i., p. 335.

§ Principle of Population, vol. i., p. 307.

this is just such a result as might have been anticipated. For common experience shows us that the children of little capitalists and occupiers are more prudent and careful than the children of day labourers, who having no hopes of raising themselves above their actual condition, think very little of the future in this or any other of their undertakings.

I return now to the calculations I have made respecting the comparative prevalence of crime in the counties of England and Wales. Hitherto I have confined my observations to the Agricultural Counties, wishing to avoid that complexity which would arise in attempting to deal with three causes at once. I have endeavoured to shew that our agricultural population consists of two classes, remarkably distinguished from each other in their character and social position, the yeomen and the day labourers. The yeoman is a little capitalist, and is marked by those qualities which belong to the class of little capitalists. He is patient, industrious, frugal and intelligent, thoughtful of the future, and respectable in his general demeanour. I have shown that the number of commitments in every district rises rapidly and progressively with the size of the farms, as indicated by the number of labourers in husbandry, compared with the number of occupiers. Now in proceeding to consider the moral influence of manufacturing employments, it is absolutely needful, if we would arrive at any useful conclusions, to keep in mind the distinction between the two classes of agricultural population just adverted to. For in every county, even those most marked by the extension of manufactures, there is a considerable number of the people employed in husbandry, and on the character of this agricultural population depends very much the number of commitments in the county at large. In order therefore to estimate the influence of manufactures on the moral well-being of the people, we must compare the proportion of commitments in a manufacturing county with those in an agricultural county of the same class. This I have been careful to do. I have placed the Manufacturing Counties in a separate column by the side of the Agricultural Counties, distributing them in classes in the same manner, with reference to the proportion of labourers to occupiers. Taking the general results, I find the proportion of commitments rises with the size of the farms, as I had before observed in the Agricultural Counties. The number of commitments in each 100,000 of population is in the first class 131, in the second class 145, in the third class 186. There are no manufacturing counties in the two remaining classes. There are, however, still remaining four counties which I have not yet enumerated, as they are, properly speaking, neither manufacturing nor agricultural. These are the two mining counties, Cornwall and Durham, and the two metropolitan counties, Middlesex and Surrey. The mining counties occupy an intermediate place between the agricultural and manufacturing, the prevalence of crime being greater than in the former, less than in the latter. The county of Middlesex exhibits a higher amount of crime than any other.

In every class the prevalence of crime in the Manufacturing Counties is seen to be much higher than in the Agricultural Counties. But before we can rightly estimate the extent of the demoralizing

influence exercised by manufactures two corrections are needed. For one of these I am indebted to a suggestion of Mr. Neison. He observed that the Manufacturing Counties contain a larger proportion than the others of persons between fifteen and thirty years of age, at which time of life the disposition to crime is greatest, therefore a deduction must be made from the number which stands against the Manufacturing Counties in my table on this account. I have examined this question with my best attention, and find that the amount of this deduction, as between the yeomanry counties and Lancashire, is within a small fraction of ten per cent. The particulars I give in a table appended to this communication. The other correction is of an opposite character. As all the Manufacturing Counties contain a considerable agricultural population, I have assumed that the number of commitments taking place among this agricultural population is in the same proportion as the commitments in the purely Agricultural Counties of the same class. Deducting these, there remain the commitments due to the manufacturing population. After making these two corrections the numbers stand thus :

Commitments in 100,000 of Manufacturing Population in the counties of	
the First Class	179
Commitments in 100,000 of Agricultural Population	37
Difference in favour of the Agricultural Population	142
In the Second Class the Commitments among the Manufacturing Population	186
„ „ among the Agricultural Population....	104
Difference in favour of the Agricultural Population	82
In the Third Class the Commitments among the Manufacturing Population	253
„ „ among the Agricultural Population....	117
Difference in favour of the Agricultural Population	136
There are no Manufacturing Counties in the other two classes.	

If we now confine our attention to the manufacturing population, and compare the ratio of commitments among that population in different districts, it will be found that in passing from class to class the tendency to crime progressively increases as it does in the Agricultural Counties. In the first class the commitments in each 100,000 of population are 179, in the second class 186, in the third class 253. This indeed might have been anticipated. For it is easy to conceive that many of the manufacturers of Lancashire, being the sons of yeomen in the neighbouring districts, possess a higher character of respectability than the sons of day labourers in Gloucestershire or Warwickshire.

The ratio which expresses the comparative tendency to crime between the agricultural and manufacturing population is as follows : In the first class the commitments are five times greater among the manufacturing than the agricultural population, in the second class nearly twice, in the third class more than twice as great. But in the large manufacturing towns a still higher amount of crime appears to prevail than in the manufacturing population of the counties at large. Thus I find the number of commitments in Liverpool on an average

of the five years 1839-1843, to be equal to 238, or after applying the correction suggested by Mr. Neison, 214 in 100,000. Of the number of commitments in Manchester I have not been able to find any regular series of returns, but I find such a return for the single year 1841, which gives 411, or adopting Mr. Neison's correction, 370 in each 100,000. This is the highest amount of crime that I have met with in any district, being ten times that which prevails in the yeomanry counties.

After the preceding calculations were completed, it occurred to me that it might be useful to compare my results with those obtained by Mr. Fletcher. If they should be found to agree, it would afford a satisfactory evidence of the justness of my conclusions; the more so as being drawn by different hands, relating to a different period of time, and computed by a different method. It was, of course, needful to arrange Mr. Fletcher's numbers in the same order as my own, in order to bring the two into comparison. On the other hand, if the results should be found to differ from those obtained by me, it would suggest matter for further consideration. It will be seen, however, from the following statement, that Mr. Fletcher's numbers and mine tend precisely to the same results. In every case the increased size of farms, measured by the proportion of agricultural labourers to the occupiers of land, is accompanied by a marked increase of crime, and in each case the prevalence of crime in the Manufacturing Counties greatly exceeds that in the Agricultural Counties of the same class.

AGRICULTURAL COUNTIES.		MANUFACTURING COUNTIES.	
Proportion of Agricultural Labourers to Occupiers of Land.	Commitments per cent. more or less than the Average of England and Wales.	Proportion of Agricultural Labourers to Occupiers of Land.	Commitments per cent. more or less than the Average of England and Wales.
Less than 2	- 57.2	Less than 2	- 20.2
From 2 to 3	- 24.7	From 2 to 3	+ 16.3
From 3 to 4	- 5.9	From 3 to 4	+ 20.7
From 4 to 6	- 1.5	From 4 to 5	+ 46.4
From 6 to 7	+ 5.3	None above 5	
Above 7	+ 17.1		

Hitherto I have spoken chiefly of the influence of different occupations on the *moral* well-being of the population. I now purpose to make a few observations on the subject of their *physical* well-being. These are indeed so closely connected that it might be inferred, without much danger of mistake, that where we find most vice, there is also most misery. But it may be right to test this conclusion by an examination of the rate of mortality in different districts; the rate of mortality measuring the amount of comfort enjoyed by the people, as the proportion of commitments measures their moral condition. I am not able to present so full and complete a statement under this head as I hoped and wished. I intended to compare the rates of mortality in each county of England and Wales, but I have deferred to undertake this calculation, hoping to find it ready to my hands in the Reports of the Registrar-General. In the Eighth Annual Report

there are some calculations of this sort relative to twenty-one counties, but, unfortunately, none of these are either yeomanry counties or Manufacturing Counties. In the Ninth Report I promised myself to find a continuation of these calculations, but in that hope I have been disappointed. We have, however, a few scattered facts which, as far as they go, show that the rate of mortality in the manufacturing districts indicates a degree of misery, no less remarkable than the amount of crime indicated by the number of commitments. In the Fifth Report the Registrar-General has given a comparative statement of the rate of mortality in the extra-metropolitan part of Surrey, in the Metropolis, and in Liverpool. He finds the average duration of life in Surrey to be 45 years, in the Metropolis 37 years, in Liverpool 26 years*. It appears that the rate of mortality in Glasgow is even higher than in Liverpool. Mr. Alison, in his evidence before the Lords' Committee on Commercial Distress, lately stated that the ratio of deaths to population in 1847 was as 1 to 18·2†. Comparing this with the particulars recorded of the state of Glasgow in past years, in his "Essay on Population," it appears that the rate of mortality has doubled since 1822; and this is not matter of surprise when we read his description of the condition of the people, both as deduced from his own personal observation and that of other competent observers. "Glasgow exhibits," says Dr. Cowan, "a frightful state of mortality, unequalled perhaps in any city of Britain." "The wynds in Glasgow," says Mr. Symonds, the Government Commissioner for examining into the condition of the handloom weavers, "comprise a fluctuating population of from 15,000 to 30,000 persons. This quarter consists of a labyrinth of lanes, out of which numberless entrances lead into small square courts, each with a dunghill reeking in the centre. Revolting as was the outward appearance of these places I was little prepared for the filth and destitution within. In some of these lodging-houses, visited at night, we found a whole lair of human beings littered along the floor, sometimes 15 to 20, some clothed and some naked, men, women and children huddled promiscuously together * * * * A very extensive inspection of the lowest districts of other places, both here and on the Continent, never presented anything one-half so bad, either in intensity of pestilence, physical and moral, or in extent proportioned to the population‡."

To these particulars Mr. Alison adds: "In no city of the empire has the progress of vice been so rapid, or the demoralization of the labouring classes been so extensive, as in Glasgow. In 1808 five criminals took their trial at the Spring Assizes; in spring, 1828, 115 were indicted, of whom no less than 75 received sentence of transportation. The great majority of these unhappy persons had received

* Preface, p. 26.

† It may be proper to observe that the rate of mortality in Glasgow here quoted from Mr. Alison, is not computed on strictly correct principles. It is found by simply dividing the population by the annual deaths. But in order to determine the rate of mortality correctly it is needful to compute the expectation of life from the numbers living at every age, compared with the numbers dying at every age. The true mortality of Glasgow is certainly higher than stated by Mr. Alison, because the method employed by him always gives too low a figure when applied to an increasing population.

‡ Vol. ii., p. 89.

a good education, and this remarkable increase of crime took place at a time when the diffusion of instruction was more general than at any former period. Serious crime in Lanarkshire is now* advancing at the rate of 52 per cent. every three years; in other words it doubles in about $5\frac{1}{2}$ years, while population doubles in about 30 years; so that crime is increasing *six times* as fast as the numbers of the people." In another place he says that "at Glasgow nearly 30,000 persons are every Saturday night in a state of brutal intoxication, and every twelfth house is devoted to the sale of spirits." It may be added, that perhaps no one has so good opportunities for ascertaining the true condition of the people of Glasgow as Mr. Alison, he being Sheriff of the County of Lanark.

And yet Glasgow has perhaps made greater advance in wealth and manufacturing prosperity than any town in Europe. Since the beginning of the present century, the Custom-House duties have increased from 2,000*l.* to 650,000*l.*, and the harbour dues from 3,300*l.* to 59,000*l.*

On the other hand we are told by Mr. Neison, in his valuable "Contributions to Vital Statistics," that the expectation of life among labourers in the rural districts exceeds the expectation of the rural districts generally, throughout the whole term of life. At 20 years of age the expectation of life of a labourer in a rural district is 48 years nearly, that of the inhabitants of the rural district generally is between 45 and 46 years. The occupation of a husbandry labourer appears, therefore, to be more healthful than that of any other class of persons, while in the manufacturing and commercial districts the case is exactly the reverse; the rate of mortality among the labourers is very much higher than among other classes dwelling in the same locality.

In conclusion I would ask, may not the facts which are here presented contribute to throw light on the causes of that painful and alarming feature in our social position—the rapid increase of crime? If it is true that the amount of crime in some districts is four or five times greater than in others differently circumstanced as to the employments and social position of the people, and if the population of these crime-producing districts is constantly and rapidly increasing, while in the other districts, more favourably circumstanced, population is nearly stationary—is not the increase of crime in great measure explained? It appears from the last census that during the ten years from 1831 to 1841 the proportion of our agricultural population to the whole population of the kingdom decreased from 28 to 22 per cent., while the proportion of the commercial population increased from 42 to 46 per cent. It also appears that the number of occupiers of land decreased about 18 per cent. in that period, no doubt by the consolidation of small farms into larger ones; and accordingly when we compare the number of labourers with the number of occupiers, the proportion of labourers appears greater than formerly in most of the counties. Now if it is true that the prevalence of crime increases with the size of the farms, here is another evident cause of the progress of demoralization.

* Written in 1840. Alison on Population, vol. ii., p. 97

It may be said that the consolidation of farms, as well as the rapid growth of our manufacturing population, indicates a better economy of labour than heretofore; that a larger quantity of food and other commodities is now brought to market than formerly with the same number of hands employed, and that this economy of labour is a national good by lessening the cost of production. I have no wish to dispute the force of this reasoning. Let the economy of labour be valued at what it is worth, but let us not omit to inquire, at the same time, whether other and higher considerations are not involved in the question. If it should be found that the change in question is always accompanied by an increase of crime, a doubt may perhaps arise whether the economical gain compensates the moral loss.

Prevalence of Crime in each County of England and Wales compared with the Occupations and Social Condition of the People.

First Class.—Two Labourers or less to each Occupier.

	Occupiers of Land.	Agri- cultural Labourers.	Pro- portion.	Average of Com- mitments, 1829-33.	Population, 1831.	Committ- ments in 100,000.
<i>Agricultural Counties.</i>						
Westmoreland	3,120	3,474	1·1	20	55,041	36
Merioneth	2,358	2,601	1·1	8	35,315	23
Brecon	2,405	2,822	1·1	23	47,763	48
Cardigan	3,933	4,753	1·2	10	64,780	15
Carmarthen	5,809	6,940	1·2	38	100,740	37
Carnarvon	3,743	4,360	1·2	22	66,448	33
Radnor	1,943	2,451	1·3	13	24,651	53
Anglesea	2,751	3,870	1·4	13	48,325	27
Cumberland	6,456	9,010	1·4	71	169,681	42
Montgomery	3,548	5,747	1·6	34	66,482	51
Denbigh	3,888	6,465	1·6	36	83,629	43
Pembroke	3,706	6,075	1·6	26	81,425	32
			Total	314	844,280
					Average	37
<i>Mining Counties.</i>						
Cornwall	8,221	16,243	2·0	167	300,938	55
Durham	3,773	7,556	2·0	143	253,910	56
<i>Manufacturing Counties.</i>						
Lancashire	16,372	20,949	1·3	2,307	1,336,854	172
Glamorgan	3,754	5,192	1·4	87	126,612	69
Derby	7,577	10,593	1·4	193	237,170	81
York	32,601	53,059	1·6	1,363	1,371,359	100
Monmouth	2,791	4,845	1·7	115	98,130	117
Chester	8,433	15,094	1·8	550	334,391	165
			Total	4,615	3,504,516
					Average	131

Prevalence of Crime in each County of England and Wales compared with the Occupations and Social Condition of the People.—Continued.

Second Class.—Between Two and Three Labourers to each Occupier.

	Occupiers of Land.	Agri- cultural Labourers.	Pro- portion.	Average of Com- mitments, 1829-33.	Population, 1831.	Commit- ments in 100,000.
<i>Agricultural Counties.</i>						
Rutland	853	1,910	2·2	14	19,385	72
Flint	1,856	4,192	2·2	26	60,012	43
Lincoln	13,105	32,167	2·4	318	317,465	100
Northumberland	3,644	10,441	2·8	96	222,912	43
Devon	12,684	35,311	2·8	442	494,478	90
Somerset	9,763	28,107	2·8	645	404,200	160
Hereford	4,184	12,213	2·9	153	111,211	138
Shropshire	5,971	17,296	2·9	232	222,938	104
			Total	1,926	1,852,601
					Average	104
<i>Manufacturing Counties.</i>						
Stafford	7,430	16,812	2·2	654	410,512	160
Leicester	4,801	10,542	2·2	228	197,003	115
Nottingham	5,057	11,799	2·3	326	225,327	145
			Total	1,208	832,842
					Average	145

Third Class.—Between Three and Five Labourers to each Occupier.

<i>Agricultural Counties.</i>						
Cambridge	3,687	15,698	4·3	176	143,955	122
Northampton	4,132	17,775	4·3	175	179,366	98
Dorset	3,210	14,056	4·4	164	159,252	103
Norfolk	7,947	37,446	4·7	517	390,054	132
Huntingdon	1,254	5,967	4·8	50	53,192	94
			Total	1,082	925,819
					Average	117
<i>Manufacturing Counties.</i>						
Worcester	3,896	14,590	3·7	308	211,365	146
Gloucester	5,521	20,927	3·8	751	387,019	194
Warwick	3,980	15,644	3·9	687	336,610	204
			Total	1,746	934,994
					Average	186

Prevalence of Crime in each County of England and Wales compared with the Occupations and Social Condition of the People.—Continued.

Fourth Class.—Between Five and Seven Labourers to each Occupier.

	Occupiers of Land.	Agri- cultural Labourers.	Pro- portion.	Average of Com- mitments, 1829-33.	Population, 1831.	Commit- ments in 100,000.
<i>Agricultural Counties.</i>						
Wilts	4,626	24,708	5·3	396	240,156	165
Kent	6,513	36,113	5·5	681	479,155	142
Suffolk	5,647	33,040	5·8	400	296,317	135
Sussex	4,490	26,125	6·0	346	272,340	127
Hampshire.....	4,008	24,675	6·1	467	314,280	149
Oxford	2,512	15,998	6·4	212	152,156	140
Buckingham	2,605	16,743	6·4	205	146,529	140
Bedford	1,804	11,588	6·4	116	95,483	122
Berkshire	2,169	14,802	6·8	215	145,389	148
			Total	3,038	2,141,805
					Average	142

Fifth Class.—Seven or more Labourers to each Occupier.

<i>Agricultural Counties.</i>						
Essex	5,449	38,234	7·0	591	317,507	186
Hertford	1,917	14,700	7·6	260	143,341	181
			Total	851	460,848
					Average	184
<i>Metropolitan Counties.</i>						
Surrey	2,600	16,761	6·4	790	486,334	162
Middlesex	1,540	11,376	7·4	3,580	1,358,330	263

To find the correction to be made in the Amount of Crime in the Manufacturing Counties on account of the Ages of the Population.

Number of Males at every Age in the Yeomanry Counties. From the Census of 1841.

Counties.	Under 15.	15 to 20.	20 to 25.	25 to 30.	30 to 40.	40 to 50.	50 to 60.	Above 60.
Westmoreland.	10,219	3,023	2,526	1,972	3,268	2,619	1,972	2,475
Cumberland ..	32,256	8,846	7,792	6,256	10,195	8,112	5,948	6,510
Merioneth	7,027	1,817	1,611	1,515	2,342	1,697	1,436	1,817
Brecon	9,604	2,844	2,775	2,362	3,722	2,572	1,897	2,247
Cardigan	12,811	3,333	2,639	2,212	3,589	2,762	2,200	2,636
Carmarthen ..	20,624	5,196	4,009	3,411	6,859	4,215	3,274	4,078
Carnarvon	14,931	3,939	3,497	3,135	4,880	3,474	2,646	2,937
Radnor	4,731	1,305	1,217	914	1,359	1,188	937	1,153
Anglesea	9,586	2,366	1,902	1,605	2,613	2,275	1,781	2,164
Montgomery ..	12,932	3,547	2,850	2,359	3,948	3,089	2,579	2,941
Denbigh	16,535	4,691	3,842	3,166	5,307	4,119	3,131	3,581
Pembroke	16,175	4,067	3,160	2,592	4,485	3,615	2,649	3,374
	167,331	44,974	37,820	31,499	51,567	39,737	30,450	35,913

To find the correction to be made to the Amount of Crime in the Manufacturing Counties on account of the Ages of the Population.—Continued.

Number of Females at every Age in the Yeomanry Counties.								
Counties.	Under 15.	15 to 20.	20 to 25.	25 to 30.	30 to 40.	40 to 50.	50 to 60.	Above 60.
Westmoreland.	10,296	2,749	2,428	2,097	3,262	2,570	2,018	2,687
Cumberland ..	31,696	9,342	8,912	7,107	11,052	8,696	6,582	8,136
Merioneth	6,798	1,818	1,724	1,524	2,319	1,876	1,615	2,365
Brecon	9,664	2,788	2,671	2,202	3,267	2,405	1,897	2,596
Cardigan	12,623	3,697	3,358	2,858	4,370	3,308	2,828	3,500
Carmarthen ..	20,016	5,766	5,023	4,073	6,562	4,877	3,814	5,512
Carnarvon	14,775	4,129	3,805	3,143	4,988	3,908	2,973	3,729
Radnor	4,712	1,314	1,102	854	1,323	1,090	910	1,211
Anglesea	9,153	2,585	2,324	1,948	3,039	2,543	2,128	2,791
Montgomery ..	12,973	3,554	2,921	2,388	3,910	3,102	2,614	3,455
Denbigh	15,901	4,561	3,942	3,202	5,168	5,116	3,216	4,310
Pembroke	16,403	4,910	4,667	3,599	5,596	4,469	3,374	4,751
	165,010	47,213	42,877	31,995	54,856	42,960	33,969	45,043

The Number at every Age to each Thousand of Population will be as follows:—

Males.....	183	49	41	34	56	43	33	39
Females.....	181	51	47	38	62	47	37	50

Number of Males and Females at every Age in Lancashire.

Males	303,779	85,122	81,067	69,472	113,866	75,441	44,921	39,419
Females	304,112	89,897	93,520	75,845	117,577	77,117	48,360	45,201

The Number at every Age to each Thousand of Population will be as follows:—

Males.....	182	53	48	42	68	45	26	23
Females.....	182	54	56	45	70	46	29	27

Number of Commitments at every Age in Lancashire.

Males.....	208	759	861	589	652	280	91	42
Females.....	48	185	235	164	183	83	48	15

Total.—Males 3,482; Females 941. Grand Total.—4,423.

Number of Commitments that would take place in Lancashire, supposing the Ages of the Population the same as in the Yeomanry Counties; the tendency to crime at every age being the same as at present.

Males.....	209	702	735	476	537	267	115	71
Females.....	48	174	197	121	162	85	61	27

Total.—Males 3,112; Females 875. Grand Total—3,987.

As 4,423 : 3,987 :: 100 : 90·1,
therefore the deduction to be made from the amount of crime in Lancashire, on account of the difference in the ages of the population, when compared with the Yeomanry Counties, amounts to 10 per cent. nearly.

To find the correction to be made to the Amount of Crime in the Manufacturing Counties on account of the Agricultural Population contained in those Counties.

In the purely Agricultural Counties the population is equal to eight times the sum of the occupiers of land and labourers in husbandry, very nearly. I assume that the same proportion holds good in the Manufacturing Counties. I also assume that the Number of Commitments is in the same proportion among the Agricultural Population of the Manufacturing Counties as in the Agricultural Counties of the same class.

MANUFACTURING COUNTIES IN CLASS I.

Total Population	3,504,516	Total Commitments	4,615
Agricultural Population	1,450,080	Due to Agricultural Population....	522
Manufacturing Population	2,054,436	Due to Manufacturing Population	4,093
Hence the Number of Commitments in 100,000 of Manu- facturing Population	$\frac{4093}{2,054,436} = 199$		
Deduct 10 per cent.	20		
Corrected Result	179		

MANUFACTURING COUNTIES IN CLASS II.

Total Population.....	832,842	Total Commitments	1,208
Agricultural Population.....	451,528	Due to Agricultural Population....	421
Manufacturing Population	381,314	Due to Manufacturing Population	787
Hence the Number of Commitments in 100,000 of Manu- facturing Population	$\frac{787}{381,314} = 206$		
Deduct 10 per cent.	20		
Corrected Result	186		

MANUFACTURING COUNTIES IN CLASS III.

Total Population.....	934,994	Total Commitments	1,746
Agricultural Population.....	516,464	Due to Agricultural Population....	568
Manufacturing Population.....	418,530	Due to Manufacturing Population	1,178
Hence the Number of Commitments in 100,000 of Manu- facturing Population	$\frac{1178}{418,530} = 281$		
Deduct 10 per cent.	28		
Corrected Result	253		

Railways in Prussia and other Continental States, at the close of the Year 1848. Contributed by BERNARD HEBELER, Esq., Consul-General for Prussia.

LENGTH of railways in Prussia opened for traffic, and in course of construction, undertaken by Government and by private companies, 482 German miles; capital invested, and further required for their completion, 187,703,621 Rthlr., averaging 389,400 Rthlr. per German mile. One German mile is equal to about five English, and 7 Rthlr. make 1l. sterling.

Neighbouring states participate in these railways for a length of $42\frac{3}{4}$ German miles in actual operation, involving, according to the